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Diversity in CO₂ concentrating mechanisms among chemolithoautotrophs from genera *Hydrogenovibrio*, *Thiomicrospira*, and *Thiomicrospira*, ubiquitous in sulfidic habitats worldwide

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Running title: Diverse CCMs in sulfur-oxidizing autotrophs

ABSTRACT Members of *Hydrogenovibrio*, *Thiomicrospira* and *Thiomicrothrix* fix carbon at hydrothermal vents, coastal sediments, hypersaline lakes, and other sulfidic habitats. The genome sequences of these ubiquitous and prolific chemolithoautotrophs suggest a surprising diversity of mechanisms for dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC) uptake and fixation; these mechanisms are verified here. Carboxysomes are apparent in transmission electron micrographs of most of these organisms; lack of carboxysomes in *Thiomicrothrix* sp. Milos T2 and *Tmr. arctica*, and an inability to grow under low DIC conditions by *Thiomicrothrix* sp. Milos T2 are consistent with an absence of carboxysome loci in their genomes. For the remaining organisms, genes encoding potential DIC transporters from four evolutionarily distinct families (Tcr0853/0854, Chr, SbtA, SulP) are located downstream of carboxysome loci. Transporter genes collocated with carboxysome loci, as well as some homologs located elsewhere on the chromosomes, had elevated transcript levels under low DIC conditions, as assayed by qRT-PCR. DIC uptake was measureable via silicone oil centrifugation when a representative of each of the four types of transporter was expressed in *Escherichia coli*. Expression of these genes in carbonic anhydrase-deficient *E. coli* EDCM636 enabled it to grow under low DIC conditions, consistent with DIC transport by these proteins. The results from this study expand the range of DIC transporters within the SbtA and SulP transporter families, verify DIC uptake by transporters encoded by Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854 and their homologs, and introduce DIC as a potential substrate for transporters from the Chr family.

IMPORTANCE Autotrophic organisms take up and fix DIC, introducing carbon into the biological component of the global carbon cycle. The mechanisms for DIC uptake and

fixation by autotrophic *Bacteria* and *Archaea* are likely to be diverse, but have only been well-characterized among "*Cyanobacteria*". Based on genome sequences, members of *Hydrogenovibrio*, *Thiomicrospira* and *Thiomicrothrix* have a variety of mechanisms for DIC uptake and fixation. We verified that most of these organisms are capable of growing under low DIC conditions, when they upregulate carboxysome loci and transporter genes collocated with these loci on their chromosomes. When these genes, which fall into four evolutionarily independent families of transporters, are expressed in *E. coli*, DIC transport is detected. This expansion in known DIC transporters across four families, from organisms from a variety of environments, provides insight into the ecophysiology of autotrophs, as well as a toolkit for engineering microorganisms for carbon-neutral biochemistries of industrial importance.

KEYWORDS CO₂ concentrating mechanism, chemolithoautotroph, autotroph, carbon fixation

(INTRODUCTION)

Autotrophic members of domains *Bacteria* and *Archaea* are responsible for introducing carbon into the biological portion of the global carbon cycle in virtually any habitat with sufficient light or chemical energy to power the process of carbon fixation. They use CO₂ from the air, or dissolved inorganic carbon (DIC = CO₂ + HCO₃⁻ + CO₃²⁻), if aquatic, as their carbon source, and have a variety of mechanisms to compensate for variability in the availabilities of these compounds.

CO₂-concentrating mechanisms (CCMs) are one such mechanism, and have been particularly well-studied among members of the phylum "*Cyanobacteria*". In these organisms, active transport of HCO₃⁻ elevates its intracellular concentration. Cytoplasmic HCO₃⁻ enters carboxysomes. These protein-bound microcompartments contain the enzymes carbonic anhydrase (EC 4.2.1.1), and ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RubisCO, EC 4.1.1.39). These enzymes act together to dehydrate some of the HCO₃⁻ to form CO₂, and use the CO₂ to carboxylate ribulose bisphosphate, leading to the formation of 3-phosphoglycerate for biosynthesis (1-3). The HCO₃⁻ transporters characterized in members of phylum "*Cyanobacteria*" fall into three evolutionarily independent lineages: BCT1, an ABC transporter (4); BicA, a member of the SulP family of transporters (5); and SbtA (6). Loss of cytoplasmic DIC is minimized by conversion of cytoplasmic CO₂ to HCO₃⁻ via membrane-associated carbonic anhydrases, which couple CO₂ hydration to redox reactions (7, 8). This arsenal of DIC transporters and traps is distributed among members of "*Cyanobacteria*" based on their habitats; those inhabiting freshwater and sediments, in which DIC concentration and composition can vary most greatly (e.g., due to pH differences) tend

to carry a variety of these complexes, while those inhabiting the open ocean, where DIC concentrations and pH values are subject to much less variation, tend to carry a more limited subset (9). For organisms carrying a variety of transporters and traps, these complexes are differentially regulated in a manner consistent with differences in their parameters (e.g., higher-affinity transporters BCT1 and SbtA are favored when HCO_3^- concentrations are particularly low (1)).

CCMs are not well-characterized among autotrophs from the many other phyla of *Bacteria* and *Archaea* with autotrophic members. Carboxysomes are present in many autotrophic members of *Alpha*-, *Beta*-, and *Gammaproteobacteria*, and their structure and function have been well-characterized for *Halothiobacillus neapolitanus* Parker X^T from the *Chromatiales* of the *Gammaproteobacteria* (10-12). DIC uptake has only been studied in detail for *Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus*, a sulfur-oxidizing chemolithoautotroph from the *Thiotrichales* of the *Gammaproteobacteria*, isolated from deep-sea hydrothermal vents (13). This organism generates elevated intracellular DIC concentrations in an energy-dependent manner (14, 15), and has carboxysomes (16), which likely facilitates its ability to grow rapidly under low-DIC conditions (14). Random and site-directed mutagenesis of gene loci Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854, which are located downstream of the carboxysome locus in this organism, result in a high- CO_2 requiring phenotype, and loss of an ability to generate high intracellular concentrations of DIC, suggesting that these genes encode a two-component DIC transporter (17). Homologs of these genes are common among autotrophic *Bacteria*, and one of them (Tcr_0854) is from a PFAM without prior biochemical characterization (PFAM10070; (17)).

Several members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Thiomicrothrix*, and *Hydrogenovibrio*, organisms taxonomically affiliated with *H. crunogenus* (18), have had their genomes sequenced. Taxa were selected for sequencing to represent both the taxonomic breadth of these genera, as well as the range of habitats from which these organisms have been isolated, including shallow and deep-sea hydrothermal vents, coastal sediments, and soda and salt lakes (19). Despite the rather narrow taxonomic range of the organisms sequenced, a surprising diversity in mechanisms for DIC uptake and fixation was suggested from the genome data. Genome sequences of some members of *Thiomicrothrix* lack carboxysome loci altogether, suggesting the absence of a CCM. For members of *Thiomicrospira*, genes encoding carboxysome components are present, but those encoding carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase are lacking. Instead, they each carry a gene in its place without apparent homologs beyond this genus (19), raising the possibility that these genes might encode a novel form of carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase. In all cases, when present, carboxysome loci are followed by genes encoding transporters from four evolutionarily distinct families. Carboxysome locus-associated genes encoding potential transporters include homologs to those encoding the potential DIC transporter in *H. crunogenus* (Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854), and members of the SulP and SbtA families distantly related to those known to transport HCO_3^- in members of "*Cyanobacteria*". Also included are members of the Chr family, which is widely distributed among prokaryotes. The two biochemically characterized members of this family confer resistance to chromate by extruding this anion, perhaps functioning as a chromate/sulfate antiporter (20).

The unexpected diversity in mechanisms for DIC uptake and fixation suggested by genome data from members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Thiomicrothrix*, and *Hydrogenovibrio*, was verified here. Carboxysome presence or absence was confirmed via transmission electron microscopy. To determine whether the genes encoding potential DIC transporters might facilitate growth under low-DIC conditions, their transcription patterns were monitored, and representative members of all four potential DIC transporter families were heterologously expressed in *E. coli* to verify an ability to transport DIC.

RESULTS

Genome context of carboxysome loci, and phylogenetic analysis of genes encoding potential DIC transporters. Carboxysome loci are present in the genomes of most of the organisms studied here (available at Integrated Microbial Genomes and Microbiomes <https://img.jgi.doe.gov/>). The genome sequences of *Tmr. arctica* and *Thiomicrothrix* sp. Milos-T2 lack carboxysome loci (19); either these loci are absent, or they are present in a portion of the genome which has yet to be sequenced. Genomes from all four sequenced members of *Thiomicrothrix* were scrutinized for evidence of genome rearrangement in the region associated with the carboxysome locus. For *Tmr. frisia* KP2 and *Tmr. chilensis*, genome synteny was conserved upstream and downstream of the carboxysome locus (Fig. 1). These conserved regions were also present in *Tmr. arctica* and *Thiomicrothrix* sp. Milos-T2, but without the intervening carboxysome locus. These data are consistent with carboxysome locus loss in these two taxa.

For the other organisms, phylogenetic analyses were conducted on genes encoding potential DIC transporters from the regions immediately downstream from the carboxysome loci, along with homologs to these genes present elsewhere in these genomes and others (Fig. 2; Fig. 3; Figs. S1-S5 depict sequence logos derived from alignments of these genes). For all four types of potential transporters, genes from the organisms studied here fell into multiple, distinct and distant clades: 2 clades for homologs to Tcr_0853 and 0854, 3 clades for Chr, 2 clades for SbtA, and 4 clades for SulP. Homologs of SulP, SbtA, and the two-component transporter from *H. crunogenus* are often collocated with carboxylases and other enzymes that consume DIC (Fig. 2; Fig. 3) which suggests a role in DIC uptake for them.

Growth under low-DIC conditions, and DIC concentrations *in situ*. All taxa tested here grew under high-DIC conditions; all but *Thiomicrospira* sp. Milos-T2 were capable of growth under low-DIC conditions (2 mM DIC under ~400 ppm CO₂ ambient headspace; Fig. 4). *Tmr. arctica* lacks genes encoding carboxysomes; therefore, growth under low-DIC conditions was unexpected, motivating further consideration of its habitat. CO₂ concentrations estimated for the marine Arctic sediments from which *Tmr. arctica* was isolated are lower than those at the hydrothermal vent habitat from which *H. crunogenus* was isolated (Table 1).

Carboxysome presence and differential expression. When cells were incubated under low-DIC conditions, carboxysomes were apparent in transmission electron micrographs of all taxa whose genomes encode these microcompartments, and were absent in *Tmr. arctica* and *Thiomicrospira* sp. Milos-T2 (Fig. 5).

Transcripts from genes present in carboxysome loci were more abundant when cells were cultivated under low-DIC conditions (Table 2), which is consistent with the role of carboxysomes in CCMs to facilitate growth under low-DIC conditions (21). Carboxysome-associated genes did not have as large a change in transcript abundance in *Tms. pelophila*, and transcripts from the gene N746DRAFT_0321 (*hyp(csoS2)*, Table 2), were undetectable under low-DIC conditions.

Response of transporter transcript abundances to DIC concentration.

Transcript levels from many genes encoding potential DIC transporters were significantly different when cells were grown under low-DIC versus high-DIC conditions (Table 2; two-tailed *t*-test, $\alpha < 0.05$, $-\Delta\Delta C_t = 0$). Many of these genes were upregulated under low-DIC conditions, with $-\Delta\Delta C_t > 1$, indicating that transcript levels were at least doubled under low-DIC conditions (Table 2; one-tailed *t*-test, $\alpha < 0.05$).

Under low-DIC conditions, all genes assayed here encoding members of two distinct clusters within the SbtA family, and two clusters of homologs of the Tcr_0853/0854-encoded transporter from *H. crunogenus* (17), were upregulated, whether adjacent to carboxysome loci or not (Table 2). When genes encoding members of the Chr and SulP families were adjacent to carboxysome loci, they were also upregulated under low-DIC conditions (Table 2). When located elsewhere on the chromosome, some members of the SulP family were upregulated, but members of Chr not associated with carboxysomal loci were not.

DIC uptake activity of heterologously expressed transporters. Genes

encoding members of all four families of potential DIC transporters were selected for

heterologous expression based on collocation with the carboxysome locus and upregulation under low-DIC conditions (Table 2): the two-component transporter from *H. crunogenus* XCL-2 (Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854), members of Chr and SulP transporter families from *H. thermophilus* JR2, and a member of the SbtA transporter family from *Tmr. frisia* KP2. Mass spectrometric analysis of proteins from membranes from *E. coli* constructs expressing these transporters verified their expression (Table 3). Signal intensity was always low for the protein product of Tcr_0853, which may reflect that this protein is likely to be particularly hydrophobic (11 predicted membrane-spanning alpha helices), and therefore more difficult to solubilize, digest, elute from the C₁₈ column used to resolve the peptides, and ionize for mass spectrometry.

E. coli expressing these genes were able to generate elevated intracellular DIC concentrations (Fig. 6; Fig. S6). Intracellular DIC was similar to extracellular when putative DIC transporters were oriented in reverse relative to the T7 promotor driving their expression. When genes were correctly oriented relative to the T7 promoter, intracellular DIC concentrations were higher than when in reverse orientation (Fig. 6; for *sbtA*, *chr*, *sulP*: two-tailed *t*-test, F versus R orientations, $\alpha < 0.05$; for 8534 (F), 8534(R), 853(F), 854(F): ANOVA, with post-hoc multiple comparisons via Scheffe, Bonferroni, and Tukey tests; $\alpha < 0.05$ for 8534 (F)). Intracellular DIC was particularly high for cells expressing SbtA. The presence of both Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854 were necessary for the accumulation of intracellular DIC, suggesting that the gene products of both are required for DIC uptake, and that they may form a two-subunit transporter. The presence of *chr* in the forward orientation relative to the promotor did result in

elevated DIC concentrations compared to when it was in the reverse orientation, but intracellular concentrations were lower than for the other transporters (Fig. 6, Fig. S6).

Expression of all four types of transporter genes in *E. coli* EDCM636 enabled this carbonic anhydrase-deficient strain (22) to grow under an atmosphere of ~400 ppm CO₂ (Fig. 7). Cells expressing both Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854 grew more rapidly than those expressing either of these genes individually, in reverse orientation, or in the absence of IPTG (Fig. 7A). Cells expressing *chr* only grew when this gene was in the forward orientation relative to the T7 promotor. This growth was preceded by a very long lag period, perhaps due to the very low levels of DIC transport measured in cells expressing this gene (Fig. 6). In replicate experiments, it was not clear whether the presence of IPTG stimulated growth (Fig. 7B, 7C). Cells expressing *sbt* and *sulP* grew most rapidly when in the forward orientation relative to the T7 promotor and when IPTG was added to the growth medium (Fig. 7D, E). Growth in the absence of IPTG may have been due to background expression of T7 RNA polymerase (23).

DISCUSSION

Strategies for coping with growth under low-DIC conditions are quite diverse among members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Thiomicrothrix*, and *Hydrogenovibrio*. While most strains queried here appear to have CCMs, two do not. For those taxa that do have CCMs, there are variations in carboxysome loci and transporter genes associated with these loci that suggests a surprising heterogeneity among the CCMs of these organisms.

Tmr. arctica and *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2 do not appear to have CCMs, based on an absence of carboxysome loci and homologs to most of the transporter genes associated with these loci. The inability of *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2 to grow under low-DIC conditions is consistent with these genome traits. In contrast, growth by *Tmr. arctica* under low-DIC conditions was surprising. This organism may have a novel mechanism for growing under low-DIC conditions. Alternatively, its growth may be facilitated by higher CO₂ concentrations that result from the lower temperatures at which this organism grows, since lower temperatures increase the solubility of CO₂, and also increase the pK_a of bicarbonate (24). However, these physical and chemical factors do not appear likely to result in particularly high concentrations of CO₂ in the habitat from which *Tmr. arctica* was isolated (Table 1). Perhaps the lower maximum specific growth rates observed for this psychrophilic organism (25), may render carboxysomes and CCMs unnecessary.

The branching order predicted from supertrees constructed for members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Thiomicrorhabdus*, and *Hydrogenovibrio* (18, 19); Fig. 1) suggests that the loss of carboxysome loci may have occurred independently in the lineages leading to *Tmr. arctica* and *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2. CCMs may not have provided a selective advantage for these organisms. Given the size of carboxysomes, as well as their abundance when expressed (21), carboxysome loss would provide an energetic advantage for cells growing in habitats with consistently elevated concentrations of CO₂. *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2 was cultured from the same hydrothermal vent system as *Hydrogenovibrio* sp. Milos-T1 (26), which has a carboxysome locus. Perhaps they inhabit different niches with different CO₂ abundances in this system.

Carboxysome loci in members of *Thiomicrospira* are unusual in their lack of genes encoding carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase (*csoSCA*), distinguishing them from those present in members of *Thiomicrothrix* and *Hydrogenovibrio*, as well as many other members of the "*Protoeobacteria*" (27). Orthologs to genes encoding carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase are entirely absent from their genomes. In *Tms. pelophila*, the locus N746DRAFT_0321 (IMG gene object ID 2568509999), located at the position in the carboxysomal locus usually occupied by *csoSCA*, does not appear to be transcribed under low-DIC conditions (Table 2, *hyp(csoS2)*). Based on this transcription pattern, it is unlikely that this locus encodes a protein that could fulfil the role of carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase under low-DIC conditions. It is possible that the carboxysomes in these organisms function without carbonic anhydrase activity.

Heterologously expressed members of all four transporter families associated with carboxysome loci are capable of DIC uptake (Fig. 6, Fig. 7). These measurements verify DIC uptake by the proteins encoded by Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854. They expand DIC uptake by SbtA-family transporters to the product of the *sbtA* gene from *Tmr. frisia* KP2, whose predicted amino acid sequence is only 28 to 29% identical to biochemically characterized SbtA-family bicarbonate transporters from "*Cyanobacteria*". Likewise, it also broadens the known distribution of DIC transporters within the SulP-family transporters; the SulP protein from *Hydrogenovibrio thermophilus* JR2 is only 23% identical to the SulP-family bicarbonate transporter from *E. coli*, and only 19 - 21% identical to SulP-family bicarbonate transporters from "*Cyanobacteria*". It also adds DIC transport as a potential function for members of Chr. Perhaps these transporters have differences in affinities for DIC, transport different forms of DIC (CO_2 , HCO_3^- , CO_3^{2-}), or

have different mechanisms for transport (e.g., symport with cations; antiport with anions), which provide advantages for their activities under specific growth conditions.

DIC uptake by some transporters from "*Cyanobacteria*" cannot be successfully assayed by silicone oil centrifugation and complementation of growth of carbonic anhydrase-deficient *E. coli* (28). Perhaps shared membership with *E. coli* in the class *Gammaproteobacteria*, or the stronger T7 promoter used for expression here, were responsible for successful heterologous expression and activity. Successful heterologous expression of the genes studied here bodes well for their potential use in constructing organisms capable of synthesizing industrially relevant precursor compounds from CO₂ and HCO₃⁻.

Multiple clades of each transporter family are present among the organisms studied here. Among these organisms, homologs to Tcr_0853 and 0854, as well as SbtA, fall into two clades each. In both cases, most of the genes fall together into a single well-supported clade. Genes outside of this clade fall among those present in distantly related members of "*Proteobacteria*", and organisms carrying these genes also carry a copy falling within the clade. These 'extra copies' could have been relatively recently acquired via horizontal gene transfer. Representatives from both clades from both transporter families all have elevated transcript levels when cells are grown under low-DIC conditions. Furthermore, genes encoding these two types of transporters are usually present adjacent to genes encoding CO₂-metabolizing enzymes (Fig. 2; Fig. 3); this colocation, as well as upregulation under low CO₂ conditions suggests that members of these transporter families may predominantly transport DIC.

The only members of the Chr and SulP families to have elevated transcript levels under low-DIC conditions fell within a single clade of each family (Table 2; Fig. 2; Fig. 3). The members of the Chr and SulP families tested here whose transcript levels were not sensitive to DIC concentrations and are not collocated with carboxysome genes may not play a role in CCMs, and may instead be either constitutively expressed DIC transporters, or transport sulfate or other cations. Few members of these transporter families are collocated with genes encoding CO₂-metabolizing enzymes (Fig. 2; Fig. 3), suggesting that roles in DIC uptake may be less widespread in these transporter families. However, it is important to note that a SulP-family transporter has been implicated in DIC uptake in *E. coli* (5, 29).

The SulP-family transporters studied here have domains that distinguish them from other members of this transporter family. Similar to the SulP transporters present in "*Cyanobacteria*", they lack the β -carbonic anhydrase domain found in some members of this family. When present in other organisms, this carbonic anhydrase domain is located on the cytoplasmic side of the cell membrane. This absence of a carbonic anhydrase domain is consistent with transporting HCO₃⁻ into the cytoplasm to generate elevated DIC concentrations there; if it were present, a carbonic anhydrase domain would convert the transported HCO₃⁻ into CO₂ at the cell membrane, where it would diffuse out of the cell (30). Unlike those present in "*Cyanobacteria*", the SulP-family transporters found in the organisms studied here lack the carboxy-terminal STAS domain typically found in SulP proteins. The STAS domain is hypothesized to regulate the activities of these transporters (31, 32). HCO₃⁻ transporters in "*Cyanobacteria*" are post-translationally regulated, and inactive in the dark (reviewed in (33)). Though this

particular mechanism, STAS-domain mediated post-translational regulation, is absent for the SulP proteins studied here, it is still possible that the CCMs of these organisms could be post-translationally regulated, which would provide them with an advantage given the temporal heterogeneity of the habitats from which they were isolated (e.g., hydrothermal vents (34)).

The presence of multiple DIC transporter genes in many of the organisms studied here, and their variability in collocation with the carboxysome locus, provide a basis for a model of DIC transporter gene acquisition, loss, and changes in chromosome location. Based on its chromosomal location in members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Thiomicrothrix*, and *Hydrogenovibrio*, it seems likely that an SbtA-family transporter was collocated with the carboxysome locus in the shared ancestor of these three genera (Fig. 8). In this scenario, members of the other three transporter families were encoded elsewhere in the genomes of all three genera, and displaced members of SbtA in many taxa (e.g., orthologs to Tcr_0853 and 0854 (853&4-I); *chr-I*; Fig. 8). Acquisition of a second copy of homologs to Tcr_0853 and 0854 by the lineage leading to *Hydrogenovibrio* sp. Milos-T1 was likely via horizontal gene transfer, given its placement among genes from more distantly related organisms (Fig. 2A). The selective advantage of placing DIC transporter genes adjacent to those encoding carboxysome genes is not apparent, as transporter genes positioned elsewhere on the chromosome are also upregulated under low DIC conditions (e.g., Tcr_0853 and 0854 homologs in *H. thermophilus* JR-2 and MA2-6, *Hydrogenovibrio* sp. Milos-T1, and *Tms. pelophila*; Table 2). Functional characterization of these different types of transporters, as well as a

more detailed examination of the growth conditions under which they are upregulated, may clarify the forces driving selective pressure for their positions on the chromosome.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Phylogenetic analysis of genes encoding potential DIC transporters. Transporter genes and their homologs were collected from the Integrated Microbial Genomes and Microbiomes (IMG/M) database (35). Amino acid sequences predicted from the genes were aligned via MUSCLE (36), and sequence logos were generated from the alignments via Weblogo (<http://weblogo.berkeley.edu/>) (37). Alignments were refined via GBLOCKS with stringent criteria (38). Phylogenetic trees were constructed in PhyML 3.0 (39) using Maximum Likelihood (ML) analysis. Smart Model Selection (SMS) in PhyML 3.0 (40) was used to evaluate best-fit models of evolution (853/854: LG +G+I+F, G = 0.888, I = 0.144; Chr: LG +G +F, G = 0.869; SbtA: LG + G + I + F, G = 1.043; I = 0.072; SulP: LG +G +F, G = 1.365; LG = Le and Gascuel model; G = gamma distribution parameter; I = proportion of invariant sites; F = amino acid frequencies estimated from the sequences (41)). Results were assessed using 1000 bootstrap replicates, and the consensus tree was visualized using FigTree (Version 1.4.3; (42)).

Growth under low and high-DIC conditions. Organisms were obtained from the Deutsche Sammlung von Mikroorganismen und Zellkulturen (DSMZ):

Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus XCL-2 DSM 25203, *Hydrogenovibrio thermophilus* JR2 DSM 25194, *Hydrogenovibrio thermophilus* MA2-6 DSM 13155, *Hydrogenovibrio halophilus* DSM 15072^T, *Hydrogenovibrio kuenenii* DSM 12350, *Hydrogenovibrio marinus* DSM 11271^T, *Hydrogenovibrio* sp. Milos-T1 DSM 13190, *Thiomicrothrix*

380 *frisia* Kp2 DSM 25197, *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2 DSM 13229, *Thiomicrorhabdus*
 381 *chilensis* DSM 12352, *Thiomicrorhabdus arctica* DSM 13458, *Thiomicrospira pelophila*
 382 DSM 1534^T.

383 To test for ability to grow under low-DIC conditions, organisms were cultivated at
 384 20°C in thiosulfate-supplemented artificial seawater (TASW; (14), pH 7.5, 15 µg/L
 385 vitamin B-12). For *H. halophilus*, NaCl was raised to 1.5 M (43), and for *Tmr. arctica*, the
 386 culture temperature was 10°C. High DIC cultures (50 mM NaHCO₃, 5% headspace
 387 CO₂) in TASW were used to inoculate paired flasks containing high DIC and low-DIC
 388 medium (2 mM NaHCO₃, 0.04% ambient air headspace CO₂; one low-DIC and high-DIC
 389 culture per strain). Turbidity was monitored at 600 nm.

390 **Estimation of DIC concentrations present in microorganism habitats.** To
 391 estimate DIC concentrations in Arctic sediments for comparison with those present at
 392 hydrothermal vents, DIC speciation was modelled in PHREEQC Interactive 3.3.12 (US
 393 Geological Survey, (44)) using the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory database
 394 (llnl.dat, based in part on the EQ3/6 model (45)). Seawater inorganic ion composition
 395 was based on that of (46). For the Arctic samples, the initial pH was 8.22 (2.32 mM
 396 DIC), and the model was run on the basis of water without air equilibration or a gas-
 397 phase present, at 0.01 or 6°C, and 17.7 atm (168 m depth). For vent samples, the initial
 398 pH was either 7.20 (2.7 mM DIC) or 5.6 (7.1 mM DIC) and 206.8 atm (2,075 m depth).

399 **Transmission electron microscopy of carboxysomes.** Cells were cultivated
 400 to verify carboxysome presence in these taxa. Since *Thiomicrorhabdus* sp. Milos-T2
 401 did not grow under low-DIC conditions (see results), a two-stage process was used to

induce carboxysome synthesis in all organisms tested (16). First, cells were cultivated under high-DIC conditions (see above). Cells were harvested from these cultures via centrifugation, and resuspended in low-DIC TASW medium. After incubating in low-DIC medium overnight, cells were centrifuged, preserved with 2.5% glutaraldehyde, and prepared for transmission electron microscopy as in (16).

qRT-PCR assay of transcript abundances from genes encoding carboxysome components and potential DIC transporters. To determine whether carboxysome-associated transporter gene transcripts were more abundant when cells were grown under low-DIC conditions, taxa that were amenable to cultivation in chemostats were grown under two conditions: DIC limitation (low-DIC), and NH₃ limitation (high-DIC; (14). Cells were harvested via centrifugation (10,000 × *g*, 5 min, 4°C), flash-frozen with liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C for subsequent RNA extraction using the Ambion RiboPure-Bacteria Kit (17). Primers were designed to target genes encoding carboxysome components (*csoS2*; *csoS3*; positive control for CCM induction), citrate synthase (calibrator for the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method; (47), and transporters (Table 4), and qRT-PCR assays were implemented in an Applied Biosystems Step One real-time PCR system, using QuantiTect SYBR Green RT-PCR (Qiagen, Inc.) as described in (17).

Heterologous expression of potential DIC transporters. Genes representing all four families of potential DIC transporters were selected from *H. crunogenus* XCL-2 (Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854), *H. thermophilus* JR2 (Chr and SulP), and *Tmr. frisia* KP2 (SbtA). Genomic DNA was purified as in (19), and PCR primers were designed to amplify genes and heterologously express them with native amino and carboxy termini (Table

5). High-fidelity Platinum SuperFi DNA polymerase (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA) was used as recommended by manufacturer. PCR products were cloned into pET101/D-TOPO vector, and transformed into OneShot TOP10 competent cells (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA). Plasmids were purified from transformed cells, and the sequence and orientation of the target genes was verified (Macrogen USA; Rockville, MD). Most constructs were oriented in the forward direction relative to the vector T7 promoter. For constructs with SbtA and both Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854, some clones had these genes in reverse orientation relative to the T7 promoter. These were used as negative controls. Constructs with *chr* and *sulP* genes in reverse orientation were generated using PCR primers that would orient them as such relative to the promoter (Table 5). Plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* strain Lemo21(DE3) (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA), which has been optimized for membrane transporter expression by modulating T7 RNA polymerase activity with a rhamnose-inducible inhibitor for this enzyme (48, 49). Expression, as assayed by DIC uptake (see description of silicone oil centrifugation below), was optimized by growing each strain in the presence of a range of rhamnose concentrations (0 – 2 mM), inducing gene expression with 0.4 mM isopropyl β -D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG), and harvesting at a range of times (4-24 hours post-induction).

E. coli carrying genes encoding potential DIC transporters were cultivated on a gyrotary shaker (150 rpm, 37°C) in lysogeny broth supplemented with 100 mg/L ampicillin and 30 mg/L chloramphenicol. Since rhamnose addition was not found in pilot experiments to enhance expression of the target genes, it was not added to the growth media. When OD₆₀₀ reached 0.5 – 1.2, IPTG was added (0.4 mM), and cells

were cultivated for another four hours at 30°C. Cells were harvested (10,000 × g 5 min, 4°C). For proteomic analysis, cells were stored at -20°C. For DIC uptake assays, cells were resuspended in fresh medium (OD₆₀₀ ~50 0.4 mM IPTG) and stored on ice until use, within 1 hr of harvest.

Membrane preparations and proteomics. To verify heterologous expression of the potential DIC transporter genes, membranes were prepared from *E. coli* grown as described above. Pellets from 20 ml cultures were thawed and resuspended in 10 ml membrane buffer (50 mM TRIS pH 8, 10 mM EDTA) supplemented with chicken egg lysozyme (0.1 mg/ml), and incubated for 30 min at 20°C. Lysate was sonicated on ice for 15 sec to decrease viscosity, and centrifuged to remove debris and intact cells (6,000 × g, 30 min, 4°C). Supernatant was centrifuged to pellet the membranes (75,000 × g, 30 min, 4°C). Pellets (membranes) were rinsed twice with membrane buffer.

Membrane pellets were then resuspended in SDS-PAGE sample buffer. Instead of heating to 95°C, which can cause membrane proteins to aggregate (50), samples were incubated at 37°C for 1 hr to facilitate dissolution before subjecting them to SDS-PAGE (51). Coomassie-stained gel fragments were excised from the molecular weight region corresponding to those predicted from the amino acid sequence of the target protein, and processed as described previously (17).

Peptides were separated using a 50cm C₁₈ reversed-phase-HPLC column on an Ultimate3000 UHPLC system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with a 60 minute gradient (4-40% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid) and analyzed on a hybrid quadrupole-Orbitrap instrument (Q Exactive Plus, Thermo Fisher Scientific) using data-dependent acquisition, where the top 10 most abundant ions were selected for MS/MS analysis in

the linear ion trap. Raw data files were processed in MaxQuant (version 1.6.1.0, www.maxquant.org) and searched against the *H. crunogenus* Uniprot proteome, which had been modified to also include the amino acid sequences predicted from the *H. thermophilus* JR2 and *Tmr. frisia* KP2 genes that were cloned, using search parameters and filtering criteria as in (17).

DIC uptake activity of heterologously expressed transporters. As in (28), two approaches were taken to determine whether the heterologously expressed transporters were capable of DIC uptake: silicone oil centrifugation and complementation of growth of carbonic anhydrase-deficient *E. coli*. Silicone oil centrifugation was used to assay DIC uptake as described (14). 10 μ l portions of suspended cells were added to 200 μ l lysogeny broth, 50 mM HEPES pH 8, 0.25 mM DI^{14}C (2 mCi/ml $\text{NaH}^{14}\text{CO}_3$, 15 mCi/mmol; MP Biomedicals, Inc., Irvine, CA). These 200 μ l suspensions were layered on top of microcentrifuge tubes preloaded with a dense killing solution overlain by silicone oil (14). Timecourses were run to determine how long to incubate the cells before centrifugation into the killing solution to assay DI^{14}C uptake. Based on these pilot experiments, incubations of 90 sec were used. At 90 sec, microcentrifuge tubes were centrifuged at maximum speed (14,000 $\times g$) for 30 sec before processing as described in (14). Cell-free controls were run in parallel with the samples, and ^{14}C counts from these controls (^{14}C accumulation in the killing solution due to e.g., $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ diffusion) were subtracted from counts measured when cells were present. Cell volumes (cytoplasm plus periplasm) were determined via silicone oil centrifugation by incubating cells in the presence of tritiated water (3 $\mu\text{Ci/ml}$, Amersham Biosciences, Little Chalfont, UK). Cytoplasm volumes were calculated from cell

volumes by assuming they were 92% of cell volume (52). 2-tailed t-tests were used to determine whether DIC concentrations differed in cells expressing genes in forward versus reverse orientation relative to the T7 promoter. For cells expressing Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854, or both, differences in intracellular DIC concentrations were tested for significance with ANOVA, using Scheffe, Bonferroni, and Tukey tests for post-hoc multiple comparisons. Statistical tests were implemented in IBM SPSS Statistics version 24.

E. coli EDCM636 is only capable of growth under high DIC conditions due to disruption of its β -carbonic anhydrase gene with a kanamycin resistance cartridge (22). When genes encoding DIC transporters from "*Cyanobacteria*" are expressed by this strain, it is capable of growing under ambient atmosphere (~400 ppm CO₂; (28). A culture of this strain was obtained from the Coli Genetic Stock Center at Yale University to screen transporters for DIC uptake activity. Unlike (28), in which DIC transporter expression was driven by the *lac* promoter, target gene expression in this study was driven by the T7 promoter. Since the transporter genes carried on pET101/D-TOPO (described above) require T7 RNA polymerase for expression, it was necessary to introduce a derivative of plasmid pAR1219 carrying an IPTG-inducible copy of the gene encoding this enzyme (53) into *E. coli* EDCM636. Since both pET101/D-TOPO and pAR1219 confer resistance to ampicillin, it was necessary to modify pAR1219 beforehand by interrupting its beta lactamase gene with a trimethoprim resistance cartridge using the EZ-Tn5 <DHFR-1> insertion kit (Epicentre). Chemically competent *E. coli* EDCM636 were transformed first with modified pAR1219 (conferring trimethoprim resistance, but not ampicillin resistance). These cells were subsequently

transformed with pET101/D-TOPO plasmids carrying candidate DIC transporters, and screened for an ability to grow under low DIC conditions. Lysogeny broth (100 mg/L ampicillin, 50 mg/L kanamycin, 50 mg/L trimethoprim) was inoculated with each strain, and 5-fold serial dilutions were prepared for each. These overnight cultures were grown overnight under a headspace of 5% CO₂. Since pseudo-revertants capable of growing under low-DIC conditions are frequent in *E. coli* EDCM636 (22, 28), the highest-titer overnight culture was divided into two equal portions. One portion was incubated under 5% CO₂ with the other cultures, while the other was incubated under ambient air overnight. The next morning, the absence of growth for the culture incubated under ambient air was verified. The optical density of the serial dilutions incubated under 5% CO₂ was measured, and cultures with OD₆₀₀ = 0.3 – 0.5 were selected to be used as inocula. These cultures were split into two portions, one was brought to 0.4 mM IPTG, and all were incubated another hour under 5% CO₂. Each was then added 1:100 v/v to three portions of fresh lysogeny broth supplemented with the antibiotics described above, plus 0.4 mM IPTG as appropriate for the experiment. These cultures were incubated (30°C, 150 rpm) under ambient atmosphere and monitored for growth spectrophotometrically at 600 nm.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

FIG S1 Sequence logo from the alignment of Tcr_0853 homologs used to construct the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 2A.

FIG S2 Sequence logo from the alignment of Tcr_0854 homologs used to construct the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 2A.

FIG S3 Sequence logo from the alignment of Chr family transporters used to construct the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 2B.

FIG S4 Sequence logo from the alignment of SbtA family transporters used to construct the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 3A.

FIG S5 Sequence logo from the alignment of SulP family transporters used to construct the phylogenetic tree in Fig. 3B.

FIG S6 Intracellular DIC accumulation by *E coli* expressing potential DIC transporter genes A) Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854, *sulP*, or *chr*, and B) *sbtA* from pilot experiments.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

FIG 1 Carboxysome-associated locus and genome context among members of genus *Thiomicrospira*. Homologous genes are consistently colored among genomes. Black genes are unique to the genome within the region depicted. For *Tmr. chilensis*, dots indicate a region of the scaffold that has not been sequenced. Locus tags depicted are A379DRAFT_1550 – 1580 (*Tmr. frisia* KP2), BS34DRAFT_2186 – 2175 (*Thiomicrospira* sp. Milos-T2), F612DRAFT_1864 – 1855 (*Tmr. arctica*), and B076DRAFT_0150 – 0174 (*Tmr. chilensis*). The phylogenetic tree on the left is a portion of a larger phylogenetic analysis in (19).

734

735 **FIG 2** Maximum likelihood analysis of homologs of Tcr_0853 and 0854 (A), and
 736 members of the Chr (B) transporter family. Borders highlight members of
 737 *Thiomicrospira*, *Hydrogenovibrio*, and *Thiomicrothrix*; 'Q+' and 'Q-' indicate genes
 738 whose transcripts were assayed via qRT-PCR and found to be upregulated, or not,
 739 respectively, under low-DIC conditions (Table 2). 'E' indicates genes heterologously
 740 expressed in *E. coli*. Taxon names are preceded by Integrated Microbial Genomes
 741 gene object id numbers or GenBank accession numbers, and are also preceded by 'BC'
 742 when the gene products have been characterized biochemically (54). When transporter
 743 family genes were collocated with genes encoding enzymes that consume or produce
 744 DIC, taxon names are preceded by the following abbreviations: CA – carbonic
 745 anhydrase; cbbM – form II RubisCO; CS – carboxysome; FDH – formate
 746 dehydrogenase; OAOR – oxoacid: acceptor oxidoreductase. In (A), '3sub' indicates that
 747 a gene encoding a potential third subunit is present between genes encoding homologs
 748 of Tcr_0853 and 0854. Alignments had 420 (A) and 138 (B) positions. Bootstrap
 749 values >65% from 1000 resamplings of the alignment are shown, and the trees are
 750 unrooted. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site.

751

752 **FIG 3** Maximum likelihood analysis of homologs of SbtA (A) and SulP (B) transporter
 753 families. Borders highlight members of *Thiomicrospira*, *Hydrogenovibrio*, and
 754 *Thiomicrothrix*; 'Q+' and 'Q-' indicate genes whose transcripts were assayed via
 755 qRT-PCR and found to be upregulated, or not, respectively, under low-DIC conditions
 756 (Table 2). 'E' indicates genes heterologously expressed in *E. coli*. Taxon names are

preceded by Integrated Microbial Genomes gene object id numbers or GenBank accession numbers, and are also preceded by 'BC' when the gene products have been characterized biochemically (28, 29, 55). When transporter family genes were collocated with genes encoding enzymes that consume or produce DIC, taxon names are preceded by the following abbreviations: CA – carbonic anhydrase; cbbL – form I RubisCO; cbbM – form II RubisCO; CS – carboxysome; FHL – formate hydrogen lyase; OAOR – oxoacid: acceptor oxidoreductase; PUR – purine biosynthesis; PyrC – pyruvate carboxylase.). Alignments had 148 (A), and 160 (B) positions. Bootstrap values >65% from 1000 resamplings of the alignment are shown, and the trees are unrooted. The scale bar represents the number of substitutions per site.

FIG 4 Growth of *Hydrogenovibrio* (A), *Thiomicrothrix*, and *Thiomicrospira* (B) species under low DIC conditions. Single cultures from each species were cultivated under an ambient headspace with 2 mM DIC. *Tmr. arctica* was cultivated at 10°C; the rest were grown at 20°C.

FIG 5 Transmission electron micrographs of cells exposed to low-DIC conditions to induce carboxysome synthesis. Carboxysomes are visible as 0.1 µm electron-dark inclusions; when present in the cells, two are indicated per cell with arrows.

FIG 6 Intracellular DIC accumulation by *E. coli* expressing potential DIC transporter genes A) Tcr_0853, Tcr_0854, or *chr*, and B) *sbtA* or *sulP*. (F) or (R) following gene

names indicates the orientation of the gene (forward or reverse) with respect to the T7 promoter. '8534' is a construct carrying both Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854, while '0853' and '0854' each carry Tcr_0853 or Tcr_0854 respectively. DIC concentrations were measured 8 times for cells from a single culture of each construct, and the median value for each construct is indicated with a short horizontal bar. The concentration of extracellular DIC was 0.25 mM, and the incubation time was 90 sec. Asterisks indicate constructs in which genes in forward orientation accumulated DIC to a significantly higher concentration than when in reverse orientation ($\alpha < 0.05$). Scatterplots of intracellular DIC pools were generated using the template provided in (56).

FIG 7 Growth of carbonic anhydrase-deficient *E. coli* EDCM636 under ~400 ppm CO₂ when expressing candidate DIC transporters. Cells were cultivated in the presence of 0.4 mM IPTG, unless indicated otherwise ('- IPTG'). Genes encoding potential DIC transporters were oriented in forward (F) or reverse (R) orientation relative to the T7 promoter driving expression. A. Cells carrying Tcr_0853 (853), Tcr_0854 (854), or both (8534). B and C. Replicate experiments for cells expressing *chr* genes. D and E. Cells expressing *sbt* or *sulP* genes, respectively.

FIG 8 Model of DIC transporter gene acquisition, loss, and changes in genome location. The sequence of events with the least number of gene gains, losses, and movements within the chromosome is presented, overlaying a ribosome-protein based supertree (19) of the organisms. Asterisks mark clades with 98 – 100 % bootstrap

801 support. On the left is a possible ancestral carboxysome locus. On the right are the
802 carboxysome loci in these organisms. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of
803 scaffolds of the draft genome sequence; (C) indicates that the genome sequence is
804 complete. + *gene* = phylogenetic analysis and gene taxonomic distribution suggest
805 acquisition via horizontal gene transfer; - *gene* = gene is absent from sequenced
806 genome; CS = gene is collocated with carboxysome locus; to CS = gene moved from
807 elsewhere in the chromosome, to collocation with carboxysome locus; CCM = CO₂
808 concentrating mechanism.

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812 **TABLE 1** Dissolved inorganic carbon speciation in *Tmr. arctica* and *H. crunogenus*
813 habitats

	Arctic marine sediments ^a (<i>Tmr. arctica</i>)	Hydrothermal vents ^a (<i>H. crunogenus</i>)
Temperature	0.01 – 6.00 °C	2.00 – 20.00 °C
pH	8.22	7.20 - 5.60
Sulfide ^b	0 – 0.3	0 – 0.3
DIC	2.32	2.7 – 7.1
CO ₂	0.017 – 0.015	0.194 – 5.157
HCO ₃ ⁻	1.062 – 1.344	1.483 – 1.029
NaHCO ₃	0.464 – 0.627	0.682 – 0.326
MgHCO ₃ ⁺	0.167 – 0.206	0.232 – 0.153
CaHCO ₃ ⁺	0.030 – 0.037	0.041 – 0.028
CO ₃ ²⁻	0.012 – 0.022	0.002 – 0.000
NaCO ₃ ⁻	0.007 – 0.011	0.001 – 0.000
MgCO ₃	0.023 – 0.047	0.004 – 0.001
CaCO ₃	0.007 – 0.015	0.001 – 0.000

814
815 ^aTemperatures, pH, sulfide, and DIC from Arctic marine sediments and hydrothermal
816 vents are based on those present at the locations from which these organisms were
817 isolated (25, 34, 57, 58).

818 ^bCompounds are presented in mM

TABLE 2 Transcript abundances of genes encoding carboxysome components and potential DIC transporters in members of the genera *Hydrogenovibrio*, *Thiomicrobacter*, and *Thiomicrospira*

Taxon	Genes ^a	α ($-\Delta\Delta C_t = 0$) ^b	$-\Delta\Delta C_t \pm SD^c$	α ($-\Delta\Delta C_t > 1$) ^d	Fold increase (low DIC/high DIC)
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> <i>crunogenus</i> XCL-2	<i>csoS3</i>		9.7 ± 1.9^e		823
	853-I (CS)		8.0 ± 1.8^e		263
	854-I (CS)		8.4 ± 1.6^e		340
	<i>chr-I</i>	- ^f	0.4 ± 0.7		1.3
	<i>sulP-II</i>	<0.05	0.8 ± 0.2	N/A ^g	1.8
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> <i>thermophilus</i> JR2	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	11.0 ± 0.2	<0.001	1984
	<i>chr-I</i> (CS)	<0.005	6.8 ± 0.2	<0.001	114
	853-I	<0.005	10.2 ± 0.3	<0.001	1181
	854-I	<0.005	8.7 ± 0.1	<0.001	413
	<i>sulP-I</i>	<0.005	6.9 ± 0.1	<0.001	123
	<i>sulP-II</i>	<0.01	-1.1 ± 0.1	N/A	0.5
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> <i>thermophilus</i> MA2-6	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	12.5 ± 0.4	<0.001	5746
	<i>chr-I</i> (CS)	<0.005	6.2 ± 0.4	<0.005	73
	853-I	<0.005	6.4 ± 0.4	<0.001	85
	854-I	<0.005	8.2 ± 0.4	<0.001	289
	<i>sulP-II</i>	-	-0.1 ± 0.5	N/A	0.9
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> <i>halophilus</i>	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	11.3 ± 0.3	<0.001	2517
	<i>sbtA-I</i> (CS)	<0.005	9.4 ± 0.2	<0.001	680
	<i>chr-I</i>	<0.05	-0.5 ± 0.2	N/A	0.7
	<i>sulP-III</i>	<0.05	-0.8 ± 0.2	N/A	0.6

<i>Hydrogenovibrio marinus</i>					
	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	8.4 ± 0.4	<0.001	340
	853-I (CS)	<0.005	5.9 ± 0.4	<0.001	61
	854-I (CS)	<0.01	4.1 ± 0.3	<0.005	18
	<i>chr-II</i>	-	-0.9 ± 0.5	N/A	0.5
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> sp. Milos-T1					
	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	4.8 ± 0.2	<0.001	28
	853-I (CS)	<0.005	3.5 ± 0.2	<0.001	11
	854-I (CS)	<0.01	5.1 ± 0.4	<0.005	33
	853-II	<0.01	2.7 ± 0.2	<0.005	6
	<i>hyp</i> (853)	<0.005	4.1 ± 0.2	<0.005	17
	854-II	<0.005	4.1 ± 0.3	<0.005	17
	<i>chr-II</i>	-	-0.3 ± 0.2	N/A	0.8
<i>Thiomicrothrix frisia</i> Kp2					
	<i>csoS3</i>	<0.005	12.4 ± 0.3	<0.001	5327
	<i>sbtA-I</i> (CS)	<0.05	9.2 ± 0.6	<0.025	597
	<i>sulP-II</i>	<0.05	1.4 ± 0.4	-	2.7
<i>Thiomicrospira pelophila</i>					
	<i>csoS2</i>	<0.025	1.8 ± 0.3	<0.05	3
	<i>hyp</i> (<i>csoS2</i>)	N/A	ND ^h	N/A	
	<i>sulP-I</i> (CS)	<0.025	1.6 ± 0.4	-	3
	<i>sbtA-I</i> (CS)	<0.01	2.2 ± 0.3	<0.01	5
	853-I	<0.005	6.4 ± 0.4	<0.001	99
	854-I	<0.005	6.2 ± 0.4	<0.001	73
	<i>chr-I</i>	-	-0.2 ± 0.3	N/A	1
	<i>sbtA-II</i>	<0.05	10.4 ± 2.7	<0.025	1391
	<i>sulP-III</i>	-	-0.1 ± 0.5	N/A	0.9

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823 ^aGene abbreviations: *chr* = chromate ion transporter family; *sulP* = sulfate transporter family; 853, 854 = homologs to

824 Tcr_0853, 0854; *hyp*(*x*) = hypothetical protein adjacent to gene *x*; *sbtA* = sodium-dependent bicarbonate transporter

825 family. Roman numerals (I, II, III) are consistent with the clades labeled in Fig. 2 and 3. (CS) indicates that the genes are
826 adjacent to the carboxysome locus. IMG gene object ID numbers for all genes targeted here are listed in Table 4.

827 ^bFor all species, citrate synthase was used as the calibrator gene.

828 ^ctwo-tailed *t*-test, n=3 for all except *Tmr. frisia* Kp2 *sbtA* (CS), for which n=2

829 ^done-tailed *t*-test, n=3 for all except *Tmr. frisia* Kp2 *sbtA* (CS), for which n=2

830 ^e(17)

831 ^f -: $\alpha > 0.05$

832 ^gN/A: Not applicable

833 ^hND: Not detectable; C_t values similar to cDNA-free controls (>30). Primers successfully amplified this target when gDNA
834 was the template.

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TABLE 3 Detection of putative DIC transporter proteins when heterologously expressed in *E. coli*

Sample ^a	Strain	Protein	Intensity	Unique Peptides	Sequence Coverage (%)
8534	<i>Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus</i> XCL-2	Tcr_0853	1.37E+09	5	11.4
		Tcr_0854	7.12E+11	57	76.7
853	<i>Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus</i> XCL-2	Tcr_0853	4.30E+07	2	4.4
854	<i>Hydrogenovibrio crunogenus</i> XCL-2	Tcr_0854	2.69E+10	35	60.9
Chr	<i>Hydrogenovibrio thermophilus</i> JR2	Chr	2.56E+09	5	16.9
SbtA	<i>Thiomicrothrix</i> Kp2	SbtA	5.49E+09	4	7.5
SulP	<i>Hydrogenovibrio thermophilus</i> JR2	SulP	6.21E+08	2	5.4

^aSamples consisted of membranes prepared from *E. coli* cells expressing potential DIC transporters. Sample 8534 is from *E. coli* expressing both Tcr_0853 and Tcr_0854 (8534), while samples 853 and 854 were from *E. coli* expressing either Tcr_0853 or Tcr_0854.

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852 **TABLE 4** Primers used for qRT-PCR

Taxon	IMG gene object ID^a	Predicted gene product^b	Forward primer	Reverse primer
<i>H. crunogenus</i> XCL-2	637785059	Citrate synthase	CTTTGATGCGGGCTTGTTTAC	CCCCTGTGTAGATTTGAGTCG
	637785561	CsoSCA	CTCCGCTTACCTTATGCCTTAG	AGTAACGTGTTGGTTCATCCG
	637786436	Chr-I	GGTTTCGGCCTGGACTATTT	GCGCTTCATCAAACCAAGAC
	637786269	SulP-II	CGGATTGATTACCGCCATCT	TGCCATGCTCCATCACTAAA
<i>H. thermophilus</i> JR2	2507072380	Citrate synthase	CGAATCCGTGCTCGGTTATT	GAACCGATTTTCATCCAGCATTTTC
	2507073759	CsoSCA	GCGTTCCAGGCTCTAAAGATAG	GGATGCCGACAATTCCTGATA
	2507073746	Chr-I (CS)	GCTGGAGCTTGATCGTGTTA	CCATCTCCGATCGACCAAATAC
	2507074342	853-I	CCTGTTTATGGCCGGTTACA	GTCACCCATTTCGTCCAGATAAA
	2507074343	854-I	GCTTCGCCTCAGTGTCTATATC	GAGTCCCAACGGAAACAGAA
	2507074344	SulP-I	TGTGTGGCTGTGGCTTTAT	TTGGAGTTACAGGGTCGTTTC
	2507073582	SulP-II	ACACCTTGTCGGGCATTAC	GAGGTGATGAAACCGACGATAA
<i>H. thermophilus</i> MA2-6	2572250326	Citrate synthase	CGAATCCGTGCTCGGTTATT	GAACCGATTTTCATCCAGCATTTTC
	2572249265	CsoSCA	GAAATCGGAAGACAGGACAGAG	CCATTTTCATAACGACGCAACAA
	2572249252	Chr-I (CS)	TGGCGCTGAATCTGGTATTG	CGCCACCCAACTCCAATAAA
	2572249866	853-I	CCTACATGGCCGGAATAAG	ATCCAAGCGGTCATCATCAG
	2572249867	854-I	ATGTGCGCTCGGAAATCA	GGGCGGTATTCTATCGGTAATC
	2572249063	SulP-II	ACACCTTGTCGGGCATAAC	GACGATAATCGCGGCATACA
<i>H. halophilus</i>	2518266203	Citrate synthase	CCAGACGGGTCAAATACAATCT	ATGTATTCCGGTGCTGGGATAAA
	2518265324	CsoSCA	AGGGTCTGTACCCGGATATT	CGTGTCCAGAAACCCGTAAT
	2518265315	SbtA-I (CS)	ATTGGCCACGTCGGATTT	GAATCGCAACAGCGCATAAC
	2518266741	Chr-I	CTGGCTGGGACAAACCTATT	CCCAGAGCCGAACCTATTT
	2518265727	SulP-III	TGGCCGGGTATCTGAATTTG	CGGTAGCTGAGCCATGAATATC
<i>H. marinus</i>	2574157295	Citrate synthase	AGAAGAGTTGGGAGCGTTTG	GGATGTGTTGTTGACGGTAGAT
	2574157483	CsoSCA	CGTTATCAGGAGTTGTCGGTATC	CTGCCAGGTTGGGTAGTTT

	2574157469	853-I (CS)	GCGGCACTGCTATTTGTTTAC	ACTGATCCACAGGTCTCCTATC
	2574157468	854-I (CS)	TTATGACTGGCAGCAGGATAAG	CGACGCGTAGTACTGAAGATTG
	2574158185	Chr-II	TGCTGCTGGTCTGCTATTT	CGGGCTTAATGCCGTAGAA
<i>Hydrogenovibrio</i> sp. Milos-T1	2579718736	Citrate synthase	GACTGGTGAAGAGCCAGATAAG	CCCAGTCACCATAGTGGTAAAG
	2579719002	CsoSCA	GATGTCAGCGAGAGTGTTAGAG	TCTGCTTTTCGAGAAGTGGTAAA
	2579719013	853-I (CS)	GGGATTTGTGGATGGCATTTC	ACACTCTTCTGGTCTTCATCATC
	2579719014	854-I (CS)	GGGATGTATAGCGAGTGGTTAG	GGTATCTGGCAAGCTGAGAA
	2579719194	853-II	GTTTGGCGAGCAGCTTTATG	CCCGTAGCCAGCCAATAATAA
	2579719193	Hyp(853)	TCCTAACTGGGTGATGATTTGG	CATGCAGACGTCGCAATAAAG
	2579719192	854-II	ACTACCAACCCAAGCCTAAAG	GTAGTCTCCCATGCCTTCTAAAT
	2579720167	Chr-II	CATCAGGAGCTGGTGGATAAG	ATATAGGTGGCGAGCTGTTG
<i>Tmr. frisia</i> Kp2	2517375157	Citrate synthase	ACCCTTGTTTCGGTTATCTCTTC	CAGGCGAACCAATCTCATCT
	2517375722	CsoSCA	GCGTACGTAACTGGGTCTTTAT	TTGGTGGTGTGGATCTGATTT
	2517375731	SbtA-I (CS)	GCACACGAAAGCTACCCTATTA	CTGAGAACCATCACCTGAAGTC
	2517376429	SulP-II	ATGACACCCTATCAGGCATTAC	CAGGACGACCACCAATACA
<i>Tms. pelophila</i>	2568511528	Citrate synthase	GATCCAATTGAACCGCGTAAAG	CATCAAGTAAACGTGCCCAATC
	2568509998	CsoS2	GCTAATGCTTACTCTGCACCTA	CGGCTCCATCTCCTGTTATTC
	2568509999	Hyp(csoS2)	TAGGTTGCGCCAAGCAGTAAG	GCATCAGTCAAGGCATACAAAC
	2568510006	SulP-I (CS)	GAAGCGCCTAAACAAGACAAAG	TAGCCATTGCGGCTGTAATAA
	2568510007	SbtA-I (CS)	GCGGCTAGTGCATCCTATATT	ACGGAAAGGTAACCTCCAAGTG
	2568511025	853-I	CGGGTAATGTTGAGGAAGAGAA	AACCCACGCCAGCATAAA
	2568511024	854-I	GGAGTCCAACCTTAGCCGATTAC	AGCCCGTCTTGCCAATTTA
	2568510063	Chr-I	CGCCGCCTTAATAAATCCAATC	AACAGGTTTCAGACCCAGTAATC
	2568511393	SbtA-II	GCGGCTACCTATGGTTCAATTA	ACCATTGCCACCGTCATATAG
	2568511001	SulP-III	GTCAGGGCGTGGCAAATA	CCTGCCGTAAAGGTGGATAAA

853

854 ^aGene object identification numbers from the Integrated Microbial Genomes system ([https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-](https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi)
855 [bin/m/main.cgi](https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi))

856 ^bGene product abbreviations: CsoSCA = carboxysomal carbonic anhydrase; Chr = chromate ion transporter family; SulP
857 = sulfate permease family; 853, 854 = homologs to proteins encoded by *Tcr_0853*, *0854*; Hyp(x) = hypothetical protein
858 adjacent to gene x; SbtA = sodium-dependent bicarbonate transporter family. Roman numerals after predicted gene
859 product names indicate the clade in which the gene is found (Fig. 2, Fig. 3). Gene product names followed by (CS)
860 indicate that these genes are adjacent to those encoding the components of carboxysomes.

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863 **TABLE 5** Primers used for heterologous expression of potential DIC transporters

Taxon	IMG gene object ID^a	Predicted gene product^b	Forward primer	Reverse primer
<i>H. crunogenus</i> XCL-2	637785573	853 (CS)	CACCATGAATATGCAATGGGTAGG	TCATTGAAATAACTCCTCTTTAGGAACTT
	637785574	854 (CS) 853 & 854	CACCATGATGTTGCACAACGC CACCATGAATATGCAATGGGTAGG	TCAGGCAGATTCCAACCACT TCAGGCAGATTCCAACCACT
<i>H. thermophilus</i> JR2	2507073746	chr (CS)	CACCATGTCATTGCCTGTCTTTTG	TTAGCCCGAAACAAACGACACC
		chr (reverse)	ATGTCATTGCTTGTCTTTTGGC	CACCTTAGCCCGAAACAAACG
	2507074344	SulP SulP (reverse)	CACCATGACACAGGAAAACATAAAC ATGACACAGGAAAACATAAACACAG	TCAATTTAATTCTTTATCGTCTTCTTTAAATTTTTTG CACCTCAATTTAATTCTTTATCGTCTTCTTTAA
<i>Tmr. frisia</i> Kp2	2517375731	SbtA (CS)	CACCATGTTGGGATTGGATAGC	TTATACCGCTGAATACCACATAGC

864

865 ^aGene object identification numbers from the Integrated Microbial Genomes system ([https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-](https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi)
866 [bin/m/main.cgi](https://img.jgi.doe.gov/cgi-bin/m/main.cgi))

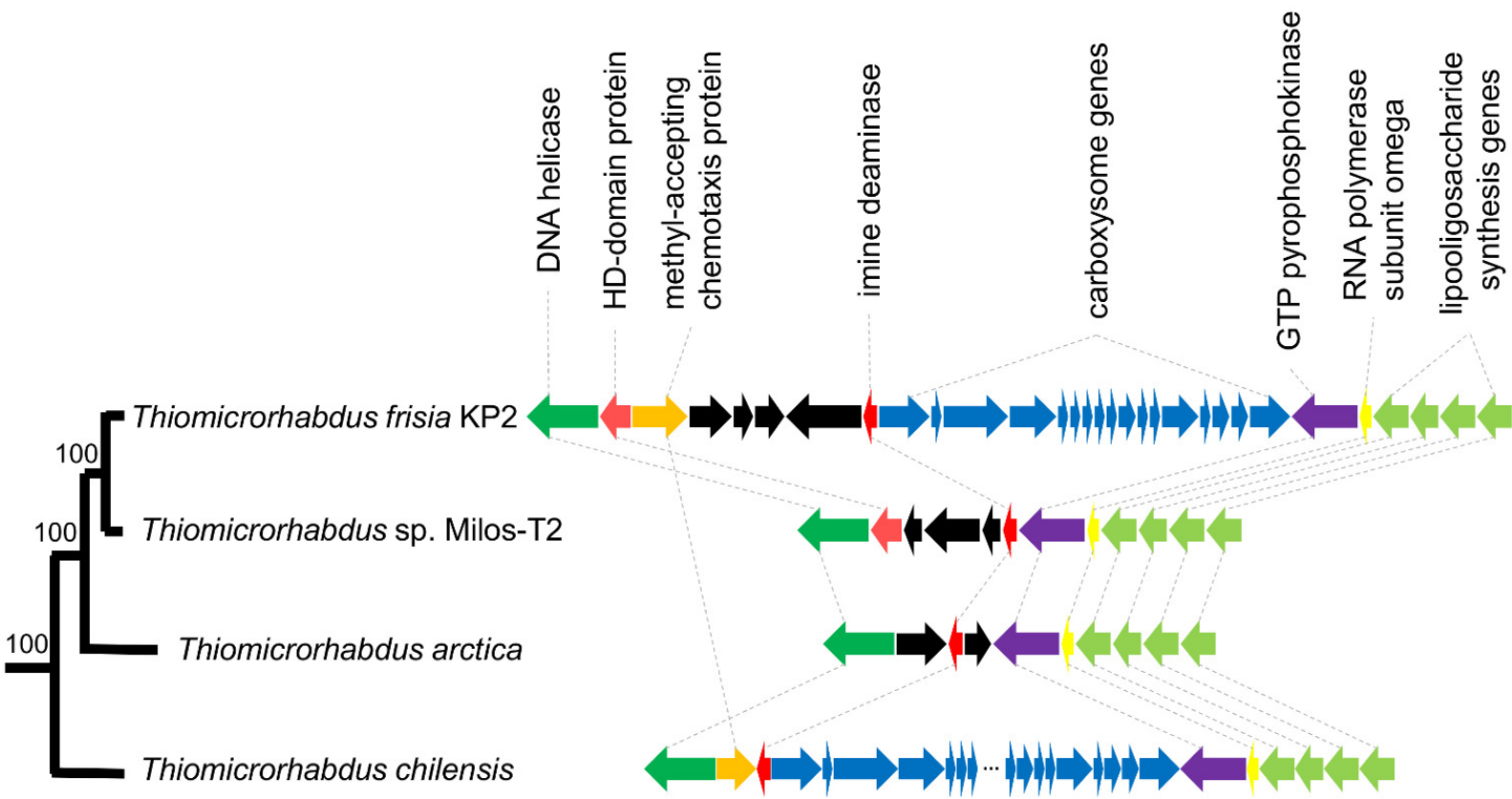
867 ^bGene product abbreviations: Chr = chromate ion transporter family; SulP = sulfate permease family; 853, 854 = proteins
868 encoded by Tcr_0853, 0854; SbtA = sodium-dependent bicarbonate transporter family. Gene product names followed by
869 (CS) indicate that these genes are adjacent to those encoding the components of carboxysomes.

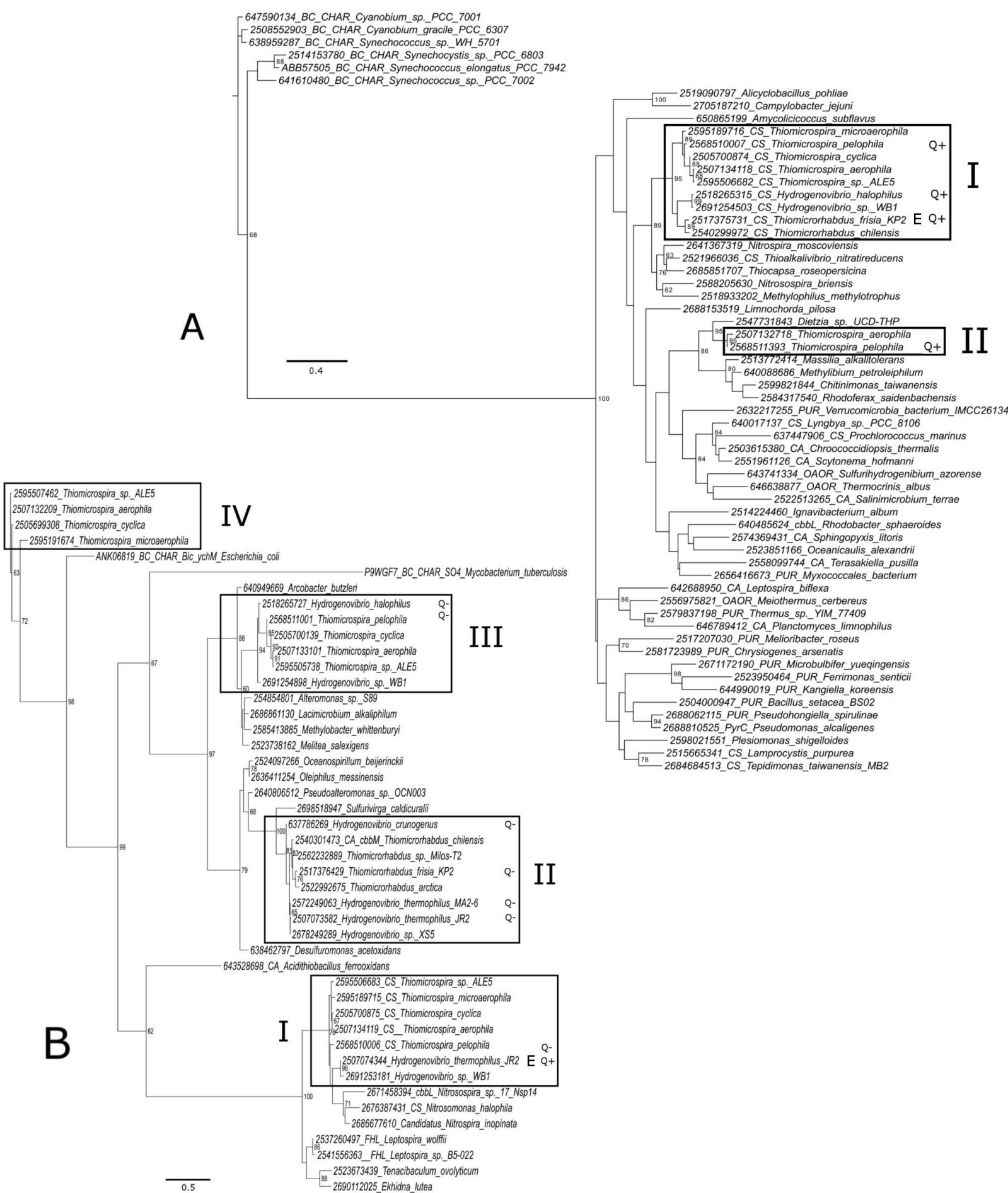
870

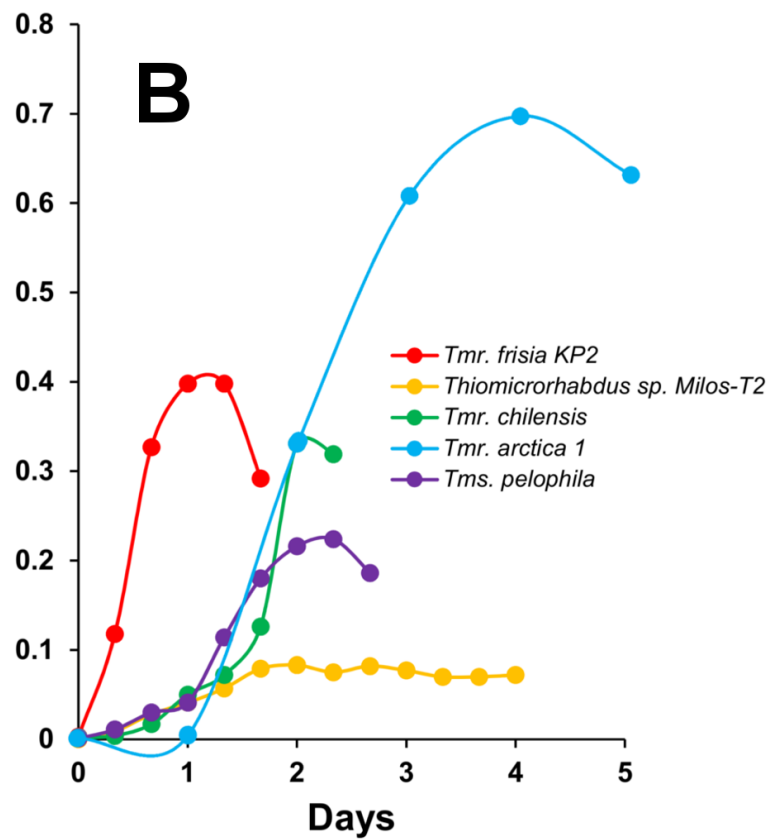
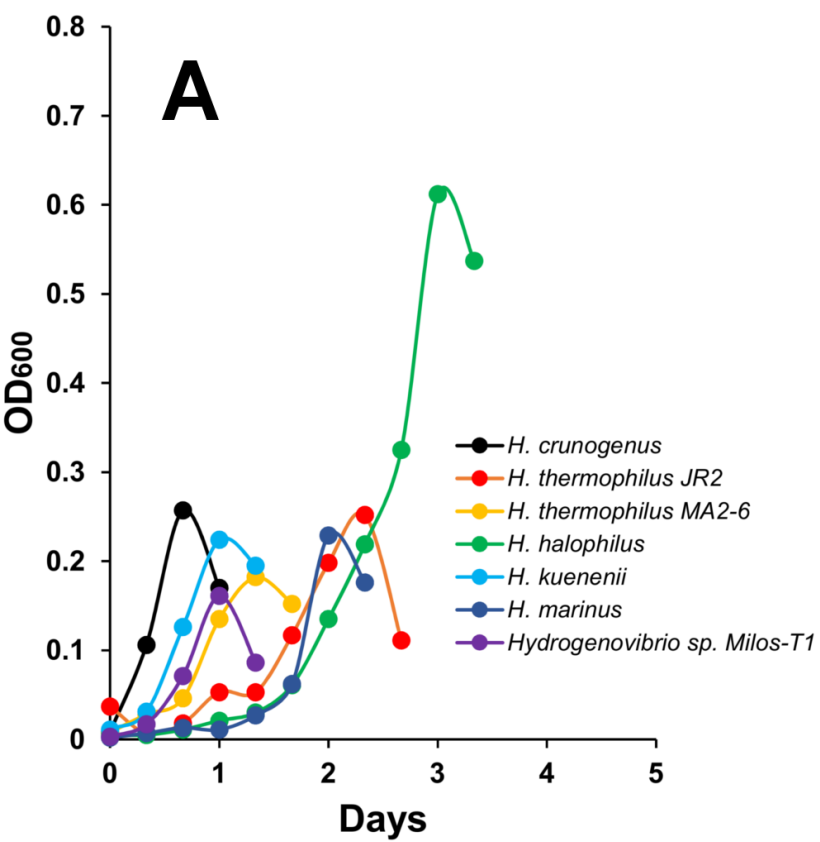
871

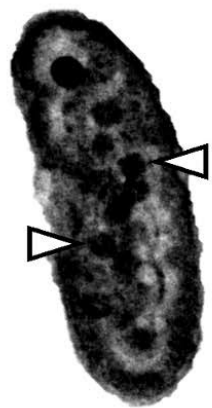
872

873





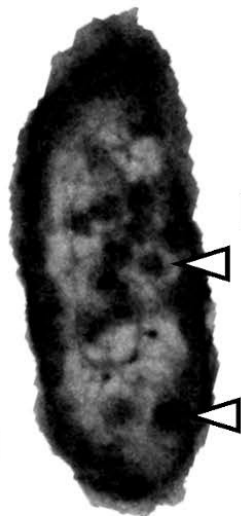




H. crunogenus



H. thermophilus
JR2



H. thermophilus
MA2-6



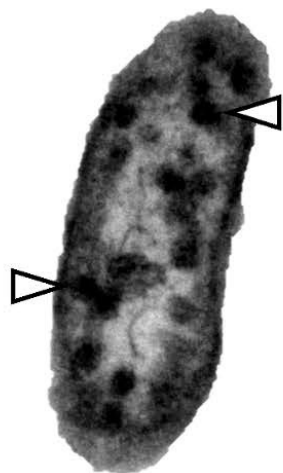
H. kuenenii



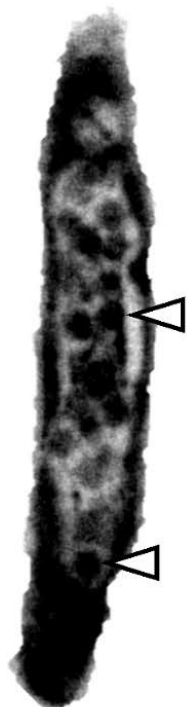
H. halophilus



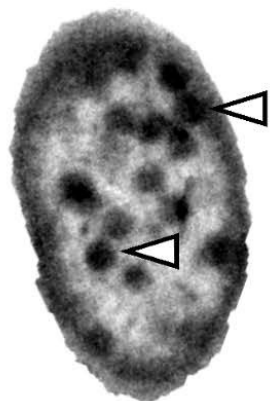
Thiomicrobacter sp.
Milos T2



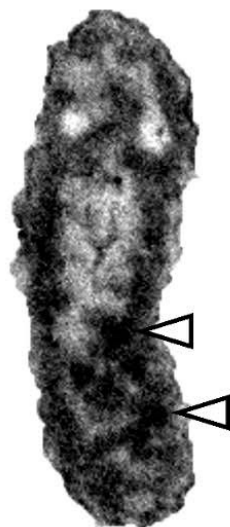
H. marinus



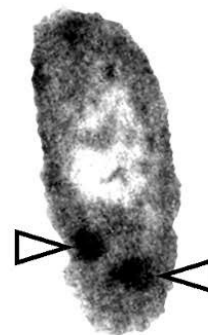
Hydrogenovibrio sp.
Milos T1



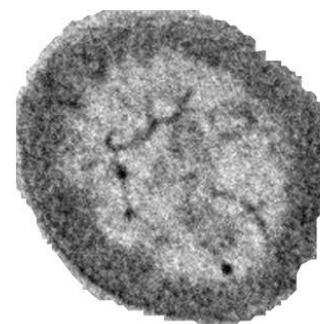
Tmr. frisia Kp2



Tmr. chilensis



Tms. pelophila



Tmr. arctica



2 μm

